

News (cont. from p. 51)

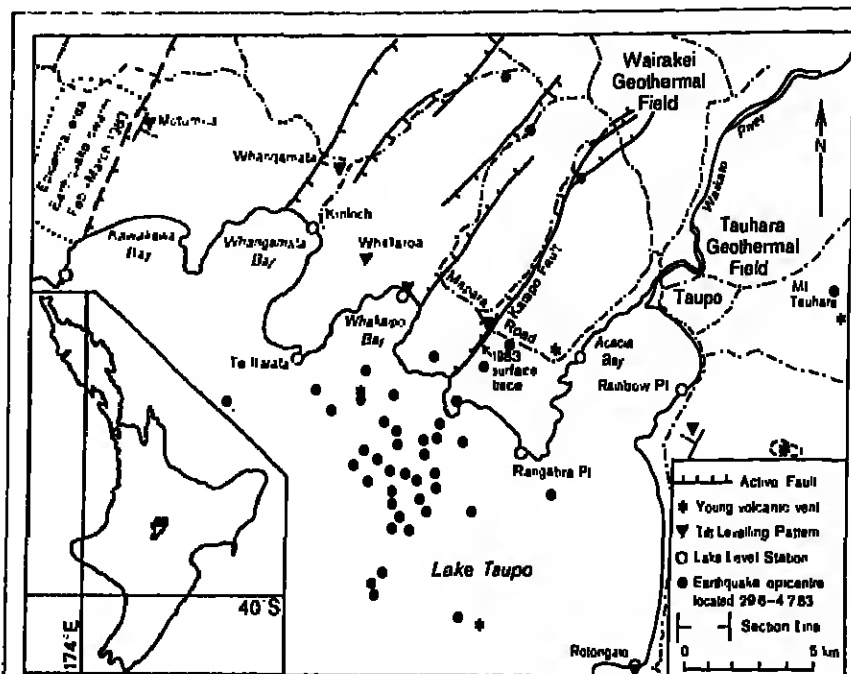


Fig. 1 Northern Lake Taupo region showing epicenters of early July 1983 earthquakes in relation to active faulting and young volcanic centers. Location of Katapahi Fault break shown.



Fig. 2 Aerial surface trace with horizontal extensional axis in agreement with regional extension. Epicenters of 1983 earthquakes are shown. The lake is surrounded by volcanic cones and forested areas.

mechanism gave a horizontal E-W extensional axis in agreement with regional extension. Epicenters of 1983 earthquakes are shown. The lake is surrounded by volcanic cones and forested areas.

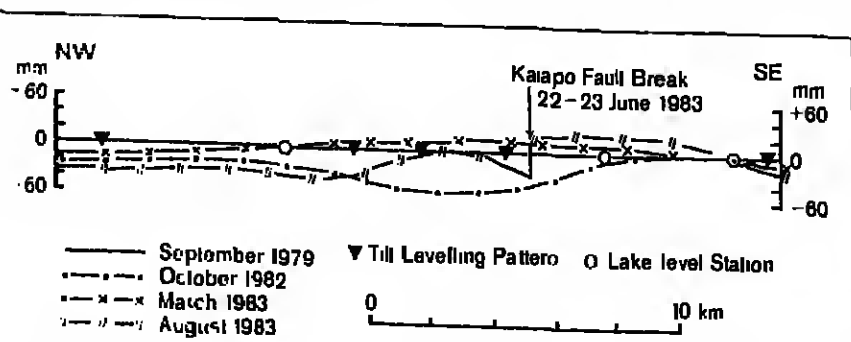


Fig. 3 Travel changes across Taupo Fault Belt before and after the earthquake swarm and fault break of late June and early July 1983. For position of line see Figure 1.

VLBI Observatory Begins Operations

A new radio telescope observatory located at Richmond, Fla., near Miami, made its first successful Very Long Baseline Interferometry (VLBI) observations on December 21, 1983, according to the National Geodetic Survey (NGS). The first session was followed on December 21 by the first operational observing session of the full three-station VLBI ARIS (Very Long Baseline Interferometry) network. The NGS is currently planning a second session of the full three-station VLBI ARIS network in early 1984. The first session was followed on December 21 by the first operational observing session of the full three-station VLBI ARIS network. The NGS is currently planning a second session of the full three-station VLBI ARIS network in early 1984.

Reduction and analysis of the data from the VLBI ARIS network will allow geodesists to monitor the motion of the earth on its axis—a phenomenon known as polar motion—and variations in the rate of rotation of the earth, i.e., the passage of Universal Time. The VLBI ARIS stations will also be used in combination with mobile VLBI systems to study deformation of the North American tectonic plate, and with observations on different plates to study global plate motions. The first successful observations from the Richmond VLBI observatory culminated nearly 7 years of planning and building by NGS as component of the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA), the U.S. Naval Observatory, and the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), aided by several other organizations. The 17-in. diameter radio telescope was donated by the Carnegie Institution of Washington. All three POLARIS observatories are equipped with the state-of-the-art Mark III VLBI data acquisition system, developed by a team of scientists and engineers from the

Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Haystack Observatory, the National Radio Astronomy Observatory, and Goddard Space Flight Center, under funding from NASA and the National Science Foundation. The Mark III VLBI system can record as many as 112 million bits of data per second. During a typical 24-hour observing session, each observatory records more than a trillion bits of data. The entire process of collecting and reducing the data relies heavily on computerized automation.

The first two POLARIS observatories have been operating for nearly 3 years. The POLARIS length-of-day series captured an extraordinary change in the rate of rotation of the earth during January and February 1983, coincident with the strongest episode of the El Niño ever recorded. Early success of project POLARIS has led scientists in several other nations to develop dedicated geodetic VLBI observatories. The first operating foreign observatory is located in the village of Wettzell in Bavaria, Federal Republic of Germany. Others are nearing completion in Japan and the People's Republic of China. Together with the POLARIS observatories, these stations will form a global geodetic VLBI network, known as the International Radio Interferometric Surveying (IRIS) system.

The IRIS stations are also supporting an even broader international effort, organized by the International Union of Geodesy and Geophysics and the International Astronomical Union, known as project MERIT (Monitor Earth Rotation and Intercompare the Techniques of observation and analysis). Project MERIT involves the application of several advanced technologies including VLBI, satellite laser ranging, and lunar laser ranging to the study of the dynamics of the earth.

This news item was contributed by William E. Carter, who is with the National Geodetic Survey, Rockville, MD 20852.

Molecular Computers

Computer circuits consisting of organic molecules could offer a solution to problems between future processor designs. Scientists and engineers are among those needing large, ultradense computational facilities. It takes the ultimate in computing power to track fluid flow in petroleum reservoirs, to analyze data from 3-dimensional instrument arrays, and to conduct imaging measurements of planetary surfaces in real time.

In a sense, silicon and germanium integrated computer circuit designs are running out of the time-space dimensions to fill the need. Organic molecular circuits, some of which will contain no metallic conduction elements as normally conceived, may be able to be produced with appropriately small time delays and physical dimensions between electronic elements. Because of limitations of conventional integrated circuits, the number of transistors that can be fabricated onto a single chip may never exceed 0.8×10^9 . This number may have no relevance to molecular computer circuits, in which logically based entities provide intelligent switches much like those of living systems.

A molecular computer is still a long way from being a reality, but interest in their potential is rising rapidly. In a recent workshop on chemical-based computers, sponsored by the National Science Foundation, new avenues for research were being considered. F. Eugene Yates, head of the Group Medical Institute of the University of California, which cosponsored the conference, stated, "If we go to a molecular computer... we're talking about achieving spacing of elements 1/100th of that [attainable with silicon]... we could probably increase computational diversity between 1 and 10 million times what can be done at present" (*Research and Development*, January 1984).

A competitive molecular computer may not arrive until the next century; however, when it does appear its properties may be impressive. What is predicted is the application of current biological engineering, ranging from those related to recombinant DNA to protein and enzymes. The new biological computers could have "molecular" changes to aid in parallel processing of signals. Molecular electronics in general is likely to exploit the full range of biochemical advances. The existing discovery of organic superconductors may find useful application in producing the first resistive-conduction actually used in computers.—PMM

Cornell Continents Institute

Cornell University has formed a new research unit to study the origin and evolution of the continents. Initially, the new Institute for the Study of the Continents will comprise research efforts in geological sciences at Cornell now carried out under the Cornell Program for the Study of the Continents, the Consortium for Continental Reflection Profiling Project, the Andean Project, and related studies of crustal geology. The institute will

be quartered with the Department of Geological Sciences in Sibley Hall, an earth science facility now under construction. Jack Oliver, former chairman of the Department of Geological Sciences, has been appointed to a 5-year term as first director of the institute.

This news item was contributed by Thomas Everhart, who is with the College of Engineering, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY 14853-0125.

Geophysicists



Peter S. Eagleson

Peter S. Eagleson, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology civil engineering department, has been named Edmund K. Turner Professor of Civil Engineering. Currently president of the AGU Hydrology Section, Eagleson in 1979 received the section's Hutton Award. Eagleson has been a member of the MIT faculty since 1955 and was chairman of the civil engineering department from 1970 to 1975.

Peter Breuer returned to the Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution after 2 years as the program director for the marine chemistry program in the National Science Foundation's Division of Ocean Sciences. Curtis A. Callies has returned to the division as program manager for ocean dynamics after spending 1 year at Woods Hole as a guest investigator in physical oceanography.

Tjeerd Van Aalst, professor of oceanography at Stanford University, has been awarded the Van Waterschoot Van Der Gracht medal from the Royal Netherlands Geological Society for his lifetime contributions to the earth sciences.

John G. Weihs, formerly the dean of graduate studies and research at San Jose State University in San Jose, Calif., is the new vice-chancellor for academic affairs at the University of Colorado in Denver.

Recent Ph.D.'s

For periodically lists information on recently accepted doctoral dissertations in the disciplines of geophysics. Faculty members are invited to submit the following information on institution letterhead, above the signature of the faculty advisor or department chairman:

- (1) the dissertation title,
- (2) author's name,
- (3) name of the degree-granting department and institution,
- (4) faculty advisor,
- (5) month and year degree was awarded.

If possible include the current address and telephone number of the degree recipient (this information will not be published). Divergences with order numbers, and many of the authors listed, are available from University Microfilms International, Dissertation Copies, P.O. Box 1704, Ann Arbor, MI 48106.

Analysis of Solution and Gas Phase Molecular States of Formic Acid by Gas Chromatography and Chemical Ionization Mass Spectrometry, David F. Underhill, Univ. of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, 1983 (GAX83-26291).

Application of Optimization Methods to the Inversion of Aeromagnetic Data (Brazil), Lucimário W. B. Leite, Saint Louis Univ., 1983 (GAX83-25388).

Association of Cobalt, Nickel, Copper, and Zinc With Iron and Manganese Oxides of Soils, James A. Frantz, Univ. of California, Davis, 1983 (GAX83-26072).

Clastogenic Activity of Phenolic Oxidation Products, Ann F. Hamann, Univ. of British Columbia (Canada), 1983.

Diagenesis and Reservoir Qualities of the Jurassic Navajo (Nagpet) Sandstone in Utah and Southwestern Wyoming, Radir Ugur, Univ. of Utah, 1983 (GAX83-25942).

Differentiation of the Nebo Granite (Main Branch Granite), South Africa, Dennis R. MacCaskie, Univ. of Oregon, 1983 (GAX83-25284).

Effect of Organic Pore Fluids on the Fabric and Geotechnical Behavior of Clays, Elliott D. Gilman, Syracuse Univ., 1983 (GAX83-25244).



Books

Carbon Dioxide and Climate: A Second Assessment

Report of the CO₂/Climate Review Panel, National Research Council, National Academy Press, Washington, D. C., xx + 72 pp., 1982.

The Long-Term Impacts of Increasing Atmospheric Carbon Dioxide Levels

G. J. MacDonald (Ed.), Ballinger, Cambridge, Mass., xxiv + 252 pp., 1982, \$35.

Reviewed by A. Berger

Introduction

There are quite a large number of excellent publications now available in the domain of carbon dioxide and climate. After a period of intense research on the subject conducted under the sponsorship of national and international institutions like the U.S. National Research Council, the U.S. Department of Energy, the Environment Agency of the Federal Republic of Germany, the Scientific Committee on Problems of the Environment, the International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis, the World Climate Program, the Commission of the European Communities and others, syntheses are now possible.

Over the past decades, extreme climate events in different parts of the world have made us aware of our vulnerability to climate variations and variability. But it is also more and more recognized that not only man may possibly be affected by climate but also that climate is vulnerable to man's activities. These human activities, especially those related to industrial processes and the practice of agricultural farming and soil management, result in the release of particles and trace gases in the atmosphere. The increase of atmospheric CO₂ which is worldwide poses a special problem of major concern.

Since the beginning of industrialization in the last century, a steady increase in energy consumption was observed with a growth rate of about 3.5% per year. The history of carbon dioxide production from fossil fuel combustion and cement production is related to the history of global energy demand; their rate of growth, at least before the energy crisis, was slightly less than 4.5%. The fraction of CO₂ emissions remaining airborne is around 50%; although this amount is variable from year to year, it resulted in an increase of the atmospheric CO₂ level by about 20% since the beginning of the industrial era. The pre-1850 value is estimated to be 280 parts per million by volume (ppmv); it was 200 ppmv around 1800 and the 340 ppmv value was exceeded for the first time in 1981 (which represents roughly 711 Gtonnes of carbon as carbon dioxide in the atmosphere). If energy consumption follows current projections, it seems probable, based on present knowledge of the carbon cycle, that atmospheric CO₂ will increase to a level of about 580 ppmv by the end of the century and reach twice the pre-industrial level around 2030 A.D. or even 2080 A.D. (T. D. Potter, *World Climate Program Newsletter*, 4, 1983).

This will inevitably lead to changes in the climate system and present estimates center around a global average value of 2-3°C surface air temperature increase per doubling of atmospheric CO₂ concentration, with a 3-4 fold temperature increase in northern polar regions. However, due to the inertia of the oceanic response, temperature increases are expected to follow the CO₂ increase with a lag of 10-20 years.

The NRC Report
In screening the existing knowledge, *Carbon Dioxide and Climate: A Second Assessment* (the report of the CO₂/Climate review panel of the U.S. National Research Council, chaired by J. Smagorinsky of the Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory), concluded that previous results published in the Chamey report (Climate Research Board, 1970), which inferred a relationship between man-made changes in atmospheric composition and substantial climate effects, remain unchanged: "An increase of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere by a factor of 2 would cause the average global surface temperature to increase by 3 ± 1.5°C and no overlooked or underestimated physical effects were found that could reduce this currently estimated global warming to negligible proportions or reverse them together."

This report focuses only on the climatological aspect of the CO₂ problem and conclusions were drawn principally from the present-day numerical models of the climate system. There are 4 main chapters:
1. Introduction and overview, dealing with some historical background of the CO₂-climate problem.
2. Principal scientific issues in modelling studies, where the global climate sensitivity is analyzed from simplified models and empirical approaches; the role of the ocean in the transient response of climate and of sea-ice is discussed; the cloud effects are treated through the cloudiness-radiation feedback and the stratosphere-troposphere interactions; trace gases other than CO₂ and atmospheric aerosols are recognized as providing another potentially significant and complex source of climate variability; and finally the need for model validation, their current state and their improvement are reviewed.
3. Predictions and scenarios of climate changes due to CO₂ increases, where the global-average, the zonal, and the geographic responses to scenarios of CO₂ increase are investigated not only through a 1-dimensional radiative-convective model but also through comprehensive General Circulation Models of the joint ocean-atmosphere system. Various observational studies are shown to provide a useful starting point for diagnosis of climate processes that may prove to be relevant to the CO₂ problem, but have certain problems and limitations that deserve comments.
4. Early detection strategies and monitoring of the ocean climate response, where it is suggested that early indicators of CO₂-induced changes can be found in the mid-tropospheric temperatures in the stratosphere and mesosphere, in satellite remote temperature sounding data, in the temperature of the deep ocean layers, in the weighted mean global or in the sea surface temperatures; the early detection of the CO₂-induced changes requires not only a prediction of the CO₂-induced climate change but also a knowledge of the natural climate variability. Therefore, operational monitoring of the ocean and atmosphere is not only required but it is also necessary to determine from the past climate records the variability of relevant climate variables.

The sensitivity of global-mean temperature to increased atmospheric CO₂ estimated from simplified models is generally consistent with that estimated from more complex models.
(1) The sensitivity of global-mean temperature to increased atmospheric CO₂ estimated from simplified models is generally consistent with that estimated from more complex models.
(2) Global-mean surface warming is shown by radiative heating of the entire surface-atmosphere system; land surface processes interact with climatic changes in ways that are very poorly understood.
(3) The heat capacity of the upper ocean is potentially great enough to show that substantially the response of climate to increasing atmospheric CO₂.
(4) The lagging ocean thermal response may cause important regional differences in climate response to increasing CO₂.
(5) It is premature to draw conclusions regarding the influence of clouds on climate sensitivity to increased CO₂.
(6) The climatic effects of alterations in the concentrations of trace gases can be substantial.
(7) Atmospheric aerosols are a potentially significant source of climate variability, but the climatic impact of their changes cannot currently be determined.
(8) Comparisons of simulated time means of a number of climatic variables with observations show that modern climate models provide a reasonably satisfactory simulation of the present large-scale global climate and its average seasonal changes.
(9) Observed surface temperatures of Mars, earth, and Venus confirm the existence, nature, and magnitude of the greenhouse effect.
(10) Model-derived estimates of globally, and perhaps zonally, averaged temperature changes appear to have some predictive reliability for a prescribed CO₂ perturbation.
(11) Observational studies play an important role in the formulation and the general validation of models, the determination of the natural climatic background against which a CO₂ man-induced climate change will have to be tested.

poorly understood at present, i.e., cloud formation, moist convection, and land-surface processes.
(5) The most radiatively significant trace gases must be monitored.
(6) The climatic impact of changes in anthropogenic aerosols must be better determined.
(7) A comprehensive climate model validation effort must be pursued.
(8) Further analyses and diagnostic studies based on past and contemporary climatic data sets should be encouraged.
(9) A set of indices that have a large signal-to-noise ratio with respect to CO₂-induced changes should be identified and monitored.
(10) CO₂ transient response experiments and CO₂ climate equilibrium sensitivity experiments must continue. The investigation of the transient response from ocean-atmosphere general circulation must be pursued.
(11) To determine the geographical details of a CO₂ induced climate change, it would be necessary to develop climate models with improved computational resolution.

This very clear report, written in a concise format, provides not only an excellent view of the most recent results on the CO₂ impacts on climate but also analyzes critically the limitations of the present models and observational data set. Accordingly, the experts of the panel concluded with recommendations which are going to be landmarks for research in the future.

A Reader's Look
The Long-Term Impacts of Increasing Atmospheric Carbon Dioxide Levels, edited by G. J. MacDonald, is much broader in scope than the National Academy report; it does not limit itself to climatic impacts but covers also some other aspects of carbon dioxide (part 1), models of climate change resulting from changes in the chemical composition of the atmosphere (part 2), some consequences of changing the composition of the atmosphere and research needs (part 3).
In fact, the book is built to document the following statement by James Hansen: "Since carbon dioxide is transparent, or almost so, to sunlight but absorbs energy radiated by the earth in the infrared part of the spectrum, carbon dioxide plays a key role in determining the mean temperature of the atmosphere, its variation with height and latitude, and thus the climate of the earth. Carbon dioxide can also affect the rate at which plants grow and store carbon. Reacting with water, carbon dioxide can change the acidity of rivers, lakes, and oceans and possibly perturb biological activity."

The rate at which the ocean can absorb carbon dioxide, depending on how the surface layers of the ocean mix with the deeper parts, is simulated through the Pipe Model which emphasizes the physical, biological, and chemical processes at the ocean boundaries, an interesting hydrodynamic mixing alternative to the more usual diffusive box models.

Estimating Future Levels
For estimating the future levels of CO₂, a model of the atmospheric biosphere-ocean interactions is presented in chapter 5, where the importance of the biosphere and oceanic uptake of carbon, and the possible feedback from large carbon reservoirs are illustrated. The dates on which the carbon dioxide content doubles range from 2033 to 2085, depending on the assumed absorption capacity of the oceans and biosphere and whether the carbon-based fuel combustion grows at a rate

ter understand the overall CO₂-climate model and its weaknesses.

Chapter 2 discusses the contribution to atmospheric carbon dioxide due to the burning of a wide range of natural and synthetic fuels. The values listed must be used with caution as some more efficient land uses produce less amount of carbon per unit of thermal or electric energy generated; a conventional, coal-fired electrical power plant releases 5 times as much carbon as natural gas does, synthetic gas and oil roughly 3 times, and natural shale oil and coal around 2 times (methane releases 13.8 kg carbon per 10³ J, more or less the same as does hydrogen from natural gas reforming). Future fuel uses are then estimated to provide a base for future atmospheric levels of carbon dioxide. Unfortunately only two conservative scenarios are considered: (1) with the present fuel mix, 1400 additional Gtonnes of carbon will be deposited in the 1978 atmosphere by the year 2033 if the historical growth rate is maintained; (2) with a tapered growth rate (historical growth rate maintained to 1980 and then decreasing linearly to zero over the five-year period 1980-2010), the date is pushed forward 20 years. A comparison with much more efficient scenarios, as described in *Back Progress in Physical Geography*, 66(1), 349-360, 1982), would have been of real interest. For example, for the 16 TW Commission of European Communities scenario, the cumulative carbon emitted into the atmosphere since 1978 would be only 350 Gtonnes by 2037.

As the terrestrial and marine biosphere act as a source and sink for carbon dioxide and as the carbon cycle is closely coupled in nature to the oxygen cycle, the following matters are then reviewed in chapter 3: the response of natural vegetation to increasing atmospheric CO₂; also in chapter 13, the effects of deforestation, erosion, the eutrophication of the ocean, the oxygen balance sheet, the minor reactions contributing to the oxygen cycle and oxygen in the ocean (e.g., natural oxygen deficit of the ocean not only amounts 3000 Gtonnes but is increasing at a rate of 10 Gtonnes of oxygen per year which remains to be explained through direct and indirect effects of human activities).
The rate at which the ocean can absorb carbon dioxide, depending on how the surface layers of the ocean mix with the deeper parts, is simulated through the Pipe Model which emphasizes the physical, biological, and chemical processes at the ocean boundaries, an interesting hydrodynamic mixing alternative to the more usual diffusive box models.

Estimating Future Levels
For estimating the future levels of CO₂, a model of the atmospheric biosphere-ocean interactions is presented in chapter 5, where the importance of the biosphere and oceanic uptake of carbon, and the possible feedback from large carbon reservoirs are illustrated. The dates on which the carbon dioxide content doubles range from 2033 to 2085, depending on the assumed absorption capacity of the oceans and biosphere and whether the carbon-based fuel combustion grows at a rate

ter understand the overall CO₂-climate model and its weaknesses.
Chapter 2 discusses the contribution to atmospheric carbon dioxide due to the burning of a wide range of natural and synthetic fuels. The values listed must be used with caution as some more efficient land uses produce less amount of carbon per unit of thermal or electric energy generated; a conventional, coal-fired electrical power plant releases 5 times as much carbon as natural gas does, synthetic gas and oil roughly 3 times, and natural shale oil and coal around 2 times (methane releases 13.8 kg carbon per 10³ J, more or less the same as does hydrogen from natural gas reforming). Future fuel uses are then estimated to provide a base for future atmospheric levels of carbon dioxide. Unfortunately only two conservative scenarios are considered: (1) with the present fuel mix, 1400 additional Gtonnes of carbon will be deposited in the 1978 atmosphere by the year 2033 if the historical growth rate is maintained; (2) with a tapered growth rate (historical growth rate maintained to 1980 and then decreasing linearly to zero over the five-year period 1980-2010), the date is pushed forward 20 years. A comparison with much more efficient scenarios, as described in *Back Progress in Physical Geography*, 66(1), 349-360, 1982), would have been of real interest. For example, for the 16 TW Commission of European Communities scenario, the cumulative carbon emitted into the atmosphere since 1978 would be only 350 Gtonnes by 2037.

As the terrestrial and marine biosphere act as a source and sink for carbon dioxide and as the carbon cycle is closely coupled in nature to the oxygen cycle, the following matters are then reviewed in chapter 3: the response of natural vegetation to increasing atmospheric CO₂; also in chapter 13, the effects of deforestation, erosion, the eutrophication of the ocean, the oxygen balance sheet, the minor reactions contributing to the oxygen cycle and oxygen in the ocean (e.g., natural oxygen deficit of the ocean not only amounts 3000 Gtonnes but is increasing at a rate of 10 Gtonnes of oxygen per year which remains to be explained through direct and indirect effects of human activities).
The rate at which the ocean can absorb carbon dioxide, depending on how the surface layers of the ocean mix with the deeper parts, is simulated through the Pipe Model which emphasizes the physical, biological, and chemical processes at the ocean boundaries, an interesting hydrodynamic mixing alternative to the more usual diffusive box models.

Estimating Future Levels
For estimating the future levels of CO₂, a model of the atmospheric biosphere-ocean interactions is presented in chapter 5, where the importance of the biosphere and oceanic uptake of carbon, and the possible feedback from large carbon reservoirs are illustrated. The dates on which the carbon dioxide content doubles range from 2033 to 2085, depending on the assumed absorption capacity of the oceans and biosphere and whether the carbon-based fuel combustion grows at a rate

ter understand the overall CO₂-climate model and its weaknesses.
Chapter 2 discusses the contribution to atmospheric carbon dioxide due to the burning of a wide range of natural and synthetic fuels. The values listed must be used with caution as some more efficient land uses produce less amount of carbon per unit of thermal or electric energy generated; a conventional, coal-fired electrical power plant releases 5 times as much carbon as natural gas does, synthetic gas and oil roughly 3 times, and natural shale oil and coal around 2 times (methane releases 13.8 kg carbon per 10³ J, more or less the same as does hydrogen from natural gas reforming). Future fuel uses are then estimated to provide a base for future atmospheric levels of carbon dioxide. Unfortunately only two conservative scenarios are considered: (1) with the present fuel mix, 1400 additional Gtonnes of carbon will be deposited in the 1978 atmosphere by the year 2033 if the historical growth rate is maintained; (2) with a tapered growth rate (historical growth rate maintained to 1980 and then decreasing linearly to zero over the five-year period 1980-2010), the date is pushed forward 20 years. A comparison with much more efficient scenarios, as described in *Back Progress in Physical Geography*, 66(1), 349-360, 1982), would have been of real interest. For example, for the 16 TW Commission of European Communities scenario, the cumulative carbon emitted into the atmosphere since 1978 would be only 350 Gtonnes by 2037.

As the terrestrial and marine biosphere act as a source and sink for carbon dioxide and as the carbon cycle is closely coupled in nature to the oxygen cycle, the following matters are then reviewed in chapter 3: the response of natural vegetation to increasing atmospheric CO₂; also in chapter 13, the effects of deforestation, erosion, the eutrophication of the ocean, the oxygen balance sheet, the minor reactions contributing to the oxygen cycle and oxygen in the ocean (e.g., natural oxygen deficit of the ocean not only amounts 3000 Gtonnes but is increasing at a rate of 10 Gtonnes of oxygen per year which remains to be explained through direct and indirect effects of human activities).
The rate at which the ocean can absorb carbon dioxide, depending on how the surface layers of the ocean mix with the deeper parts, is simulated through the Pipe Model which emphasizes the physical, biological, and chemical processes at the ocean boundaries, an interesting hydrodynamic mixing alternative to the more usual diffusive box models.

Estimating Future Levels
For estimating the future levels of CO₂, a model of the atmospheric biosphere-ocean interactions is presented in chapter 5, where the importance of the biosphere and oceanic uptake of carbon, and the possible feedback from large carbon reservoirs are illustrated. The dates on which the carbon dioxide content doubles range from 2033 to 2085, depending on the assumed absorption capacity of the oceans and biosphere and whether the carbon-based fuel combustion grows at a rate

ter understand the overall CO₂-climate model and its weaknesses.
Chapter 2 discusses the contribution to atmospheric carbon dioxide due to the burning of a wide range of natural and synthetic fuels. The values listed must be used with caution as some more efficient land uses produce less amount of carbon per unit of thermal or electric energy generated; a conventional, coal-fired electrical power plant releases 5 times as much carbon as natural gas does, synthetic gas and oil roughly 3 times, and natural shale oil and coal around 2 times (methane releases 13.8 kg carbon per 10³ J, more or less the same as does hydrogen from natural gas reforming). Future fuel uses are then estimated to provide a base for future atmospheric levels of carbon dioxide. Unfortunately only two conservative scenarios are considered: (1) with the present fuel mix, 1400 additional Gtonnes of carbon will be deposited in the 1978 atmosphere by the year 2033 if the historical growth rate is maintained; (2) with a tapered growth rate (historical growth rate maintained to 1980 and then decreasing linearly to zero over the five-year period 1980-2010), the date is pushed forward 20 years. A comparison with much more efficient scenarios, as described in *Back Progress in Physical Geography*, 66(1), 349-360, 1982), would have been of real interest. For example, for the 16 TW Commission of European Communities scenario, the cumulative carbon emitted into the atmosphere since 1978 would be only 350 Gtonnes by 2037.

As the terrestrial and marine biosphere act as a source and sink for carbon dioxide and as the carbon cycle is closely coupled in nature to the oxygen cycle, the following matters are then reviewed in chapter 3: the response of natural vegetation to increasing atmospheric CO₂; also in chapter 13, the effects of deforestation, erosion, the eutrophication of the ocean, the oxygen balance sheet, the minor reactions contributing to the oxygen cycle and oxygen in the ocean (e.g., natural oxygen deficit of the ocean not only amounts 3000 Gtonnes but is increasing at a rate of 10 Gtonnes of oxygen per year which remains to be explained through direct and indirect effects of human activities).
The rate at which the ocean can absorb carbon dioxide, depending on how the surface layers of the ocean mix with the deeper parts, is simulated through the Pipe Model which emphasizes the physical, biological, and chemical processes at the ocean boundaries, an interesting hydrodynamic mixing alternative to the more usual diffusive box models.

Estimating Future Levels
For estimating the future levels of CO₂, a model of the atmospheric biosphere-ocean interactions is presented in chapter 5, where the importance of the biosphere and oceanic uptake of carbon, and the possible feedback from large carbon reservoirs are illustrated. The dates on which the carbon dioxide content doubles range from 2033 to 2085, depending on the assumed absorption capacity of the oceans and biosphere and whether the carbon-based fuel combustion grows at a rate

ter understand the overall CO₂-climate model and its weaknesses.
Chapter 2 discusses the contribution to atmospheric carbon dioxide due to the burning of a wide range of natural and synthetic fuels. The values listed must be used with caution as some more efficient land uses produce less amount of carbon per unit of thermal or electric energy generated; a conventional, coal-fired electrical power plant releases 5 times as much carbon as natural gas does, synthetic gas and oil roughly 3 times, and natural shale oil and coal around 2 times (methane releases 13.8 kg carbon per 10³ J, more or less the same as does hydrogen from natural gas reforming). Future fuel uses are then estimated to provide a base for future atmospheric levels of carbon dioxide. Unfortunately only two conservative scenarios are considered: (1) with the present fuel mix, 1400 additional Gtonnes of carbon will be deposited in the 1978 atmosphere by the year 2033 if the historical growth rate is maintained; (2) with a tapered growth rate (historical growth rate maintained to 1980 and then decreasing linearly to zero over the five-year period 1980-2010), the date is pushed forward 20 years. A comparison with much more efficient scenarios, as described in *Back Progress in Physical Geography*, 66(1), 349-360, 1982), would have been of real interest. For example, for the 16 TW Commission of European Communities scenario, the cumulative carbon emitted into the atmosphere since 1978 would be only 350 Gtonnes by 2037.

ter understand the overall CO₂-climate model and its weaknesses.
Chapter 2 discusses the contribution to atmospheric carbon dioxide due to the burning of a wide range of natural and synthetic fuels. The values listed must be used with caution as some more efficient land uses produce less amount of carbon per unit of thermal or electric energy generated; a conventional, coal-fired electrical power plant releases 5 times as much carbon as natural gas does, synthetic gas and oil roughly 3 times, and natural shale oil and coal around 2 times (methane releases 13.8 kg carbon per 10³ J, more or less the same as does hydrogen from natural gas reforming). Future fuel uses are then estimated to provide a base for future atmospheric levels of carbon dioxide. Unfortunately only two conservative scenarios are considered: (1) with the present fuel mix, 1400 additional Gtonnes of carbon will be deposited in the 1978 atmosphere by the year 2033 if the historical growth rate is maintained; (2) with a tapered growth rate (historical growth rate maintained to 1980 and then decreasing linearly to zero over the five-year period 1980-2010), the date is pushed forward 20 years. A comparison with much more efficient scenarios, as described in *Back Progress in Physical Geography*, 66(1), 349-360, 1982), would have been of real interest. For example, for the 16 TW Commission of European Communities scenario, the cumulative carbon emitted into the atmosphere since 1978 would be only 350 Gtonnes by 2037.

As the terrestrial and marine biosphere act as a source and sink for carbon dioxide and as the carbon cycle is closely coupled in nature to the oxygen cycle, the following matters are then reviewed in chapter 3: the response of natural vegetation to increasing atmospheric CO₂; also in chapter 13, the effects of deforestation, erosion, the eutrophication of the ocean, the oxygen balance sheet, the minor reactions contributing to the oxygen cycle and oxygen in the ocean (e.g., natural oxygen deficit of the ocean not only amounts 3000 Gtonnes but is increasing at a rate of 10 Gtonnes of oxygen per year which remains to be explained through direct and indirect effects of human activities).
The rate at which the ocean can absorb carbon dioxide, depending on how the surface layers of the ocean mix with the deeper parts, is simulated through the Pipe Model which emphasizes the physical, biological, and chemical processes at the ocean boundaries, an interesting hydrodynamic mixing alternative to the more usual diffusive box models.

Estimating Future Levels
For estimating the future levels of CO₂, a model of the atmospheric biosphere-ocean interactions is presented in chapter 5, where the importance of the biosphere and oceanic uptake of carbon, and the possible feedback from large carbon reservoirs are illustrated. The dates on which the carbon dioxide content doubles range from 2033 to 2085, depending on the assumed absorption capacity of the oceans and biosphere and whether the carbon-based fuel combustion grows at a rate

ter understand the overall CO₂-climate model and its weaknesses.
Chapter 2 discusses the contribution to atmospheric carbon dioxide due to the burning of a wide range of natural and synthetic fuels. The values listed must be used with caution as some more efficient land uses produce less amount of carbon per unit of thermal or electric energy generated; a conventional, coal-fired electrical power plant releases 5 times as much carbon as natural gas does, synthetic gas and oil roughly 3 times, and natural shale oil and coal around 2 times (methane releases 13.8 kg carbon per 10³ J, more or less the same as does hydrogen from natural gas reforming). Future fuel uses are then estimated to provide a base for future atmospheric levels of carbon dioxide. Unfortunately only two conservative scenarios are considered: (1) with the present fuel mix, 1400 additional Gtonnes of carbon will be deposited in the 1978 atmosphere by the year 2033 if the historical growth rate is maintained; (2) with a tapered growth rate (historical growth rate maintained to 1980 and then decreasing linearly to zero over the five-year period 1980-2010), the date is pushed forward 20 years. A comparison with much more efficient scenarios, as described in *Back Progress in Physical Geography*, 66(1), 349-360, 1982), would have been of real interest. For example, for the 16 TW Commission of European Communities scenario, the cumulative carbon emitted into the atmosphere since 1978 would be only 350 Gtonnes by 2037.

As the terrestrial and marine biosphere act as a source and sink for carbon dioxide and as the carbon cycle is closely coupled in nature to the oxygen cycle, the following matters are then reviewed in chapter 3: the response of natural vegetation to increasing atmospheric CO₂; also in chapter 13, the effects of deforestation, erosion, the eutrophication of the ocean, the oxygen balance sheet, the minor reactions contributing to the oxygen cycle and oxygen in

